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LOCUS OF CONTROL: EFFECTS ON THE REPORTED  
GAINS MADE IN ASSERTION TRAINING

by

Eugene Earl Campbell

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Psychology

Approved:

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY  
Logan, Utah

1981

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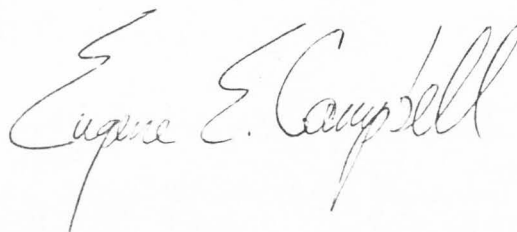
I wish to thank my chairman Elwin Nielsen for helping me to finish this thesis when I did.

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A very warm and loving thank-you goes to Sydney for her great understanding and love in helping me in every way that she could. Her time and effort at the last minute was priceless and is very much appreciated.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Eugene E. Campbell". The signature is written in dark ink and is positioned in the lower right quadrant of the page.

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## ABSTRACT

Locus of Control: Effects on the Reported  
Gains Made in Assertion Training

by

Eugene Earl Campbell, Master of Science  
Utah State University, 1981

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Department: Psychology

Forty-nine Cache Valley residents, between the ages of 18 and 45, who volunteered to participate in an assertion training class were assigned to one of seven groups. Subjects were administered pre- and posttests and a two month follow-up evaluation. Measures included Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, the Rathus Assertive Scale, and the Berger Self-Acceptance Scale. The results obtained indicate that self-acceptance and assertiveness changed as a result of assertion training and that these changes were maintained at follow-up. No difference between internals and externals was observed as a result of semi-structured assertion training.

(65 pages)

## CHAPTER I

### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

#### Introduction

In this age of modern technology, which provides greater amounts of leisure time for many people, more emphasis is being placed upon helping individuals find personal happiness and fulfillment. The ability to relate interpersonally is widely thought to be one key to achieving a happier life. More specifically, assertiveness in one's relationships with others is frequently suggested as an area that often needs to be developed in order for people to cope effectively with our changing social structure. Assertion training has therefore been studied and has been used in attempting to increase interpersonal effectiveness (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976).

Assertiveness is a quality that our society is demanding and reinforcing more and more. It is often necessary for a person to be able to "sell" himself in order to get a job, or to assert himself so that someone else does not "take advantage of him." The ability to express oneself and to do so accurately and precisely is becoming increasingly necessary in order to function effectively in our society.

With society changing, people are constantly expected to confront new situations and challenges. They often use passive or

aggressive responses which result in negative emotional states such as anger, worthlessness, or hatred when someone acts aggressively towards them (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976). It is often believed that a successful approach in defending personal rights and reducing the number of negative emotional states is assertiveness. Personal assertiveness also can be helpful in meeting new challenges. Many students of human behavior think that if people are going to take control of their lives rather than succumb to external influences, they need tools for effective interactions. Assertiveness training can provide such a tool, since it teaches the skills necessary for an active control over one's own life.

Assertion training is receiving increased attention in the psychological literature as a behavioral procedure for decreasing inhibitory behavior and increasing socially appropriate expressive behavior. It is based on the idea that constant practice will increase assertive behavior outside the training class. Many studies (Pearre, 1977; Tait, 1977) have shown that assertion training has been effective in improving assertive behavior and in improving self-acceptance. However, it is not a cure-all and most clinicians realize that there are those who do not improve in these areas as a result of taking an assertion training class. It is therefore, important to study assertiveness training in order to make it a more effective tool in increasing personal efficacy.

Although assertion training was originally carried out on a one-to-one basis (Salter, 1949; Wolpe, 1958), more attention is

increasingly given to assertion groups as elaborated by Lazarus (1968), Alberti and Emmons (1970), and Flowers and Guerra (1974). Advantages of the group setting include the support and encouragement of others in trying out new behaviors and obtaining feedback. Additionally, a variety of models are available for the acquisition of new behaviors and new skills.

While the origin of assertion training can be traced to the publication of Salter's Conditioned Reflex Therapy (1949), the phenomenal increase in its clinical application is attributed to the work of Joseph Wolpe (1958), Wolpe and Lazarus (1966), and Jakubowski-Spector (1973). As a treatment intervention, assertion training could be said to fit the present therapeutic milieu in that it is based upon a "health" rather than "illness" model. It becomes applicable, therefore, for a broad section of the population.

Related to the concept of an active control over one's own life is the notion of locus of control. This dimension originated from Rotter's social learning theory (Rotter, 1954). Two essential parts of this theory are important in understanding why a behavior occurs. The frequency with which a behavior occurs is a function of (1) the expectancy that the occurrence of the behavior will result in a specific reinforcement in that situation and (2) the value of that reinforcement. A generalized expectancy is formulated in order to deal with new situations. The internal versus external locus of control construct is a generalized expectancy within the social learning theory based on whether individuals have decided that

environmental reinforcers are contingent or non-contingent upon their behavior.

If an individual believes that they are contingent upon his own behavior (internal) he is more likely to act in new situations since acting will provide the reinforcers. On the other hand, if an individual believes that reinforcers are not contingent upon his behavior he is less likely to act in unique, new situations. He believes that reinforcers will come his way as a result of luck, chance, or fate and his own actions will not change the amount of reinforcement he receives from the environment. Rotter (1966) has argued that a stimulus event is most likely to reinforce behavior when "the person perceives a causal relationship between his own behavior and the reward (p. 1)." This concept is important, then, in understanding an individual's behavior in a new situation.

Rotter (1966) developed a scale to measure this concept. Those individuals who score on the internal end of the Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (Internals) believe that their environmental reinforcers come as a result of their own actions. Those who score on the external end of the scale (Externals) believe that they have little or no control over their reinforcers, which they assume results from luck, chance, fate, or a powerful being (Rotter, 1966).

It seems logical to assume that internals, due to their world view, would be more likely to benefit from assertiveness training. Assertiveness, because it requires action, would more easily fit into the internal's belief system. This active approach to life

would not be congruent with the external's belief system since he believes that the end result of any action is not a function of that action, but is contingent upon something else. External locus of control is the belief that an active response will effect no change. Therefore, an external is less likely to make an active response in a situation where assertiveness would be appropriate. Externals, due to their view of the world, may be less likely to benefit from assertion training in terms of reported changes in assertive behavior. If this is true, then it may be a waste of time to do assertion training on externals, since there is also a tendency for externals to return to beliefs why held previously (Morris, 1977).

#### Problem Statement

Many studies have attempted to change locus of control by increasing assertiveness during assertion training (Eichenbaum, 1978; Pearre, 1977; Ryan, 1976; Tait, 1977). No study has yet attempted to examine the influence that locus of control might have upon the acquisition of assertive skills. There has also been no study with a follow-up evaluation to see if either internals or externals decrease in assertive skills over time after assertion training has ended.

#### Purposes and Objectives

This study was thus designed to compare the reported gains of internals to the reported gains of externals as a result of assertion training. It will compare the gains in and maintenance of assertive skills as measured by the Rathus Assertiveness Scale, and



self-acceptance as measured by the Berger Self-Acceptance Scale, of internal and external individuals. The Internal-External dimension will be measured by the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale.

### Definition of Terms

Assertion Training is a semi-structured training method in which specific behavioral skills are gradually acquired through a specified instructional procedure. The procedures include covert and overt behavior rehearsal, the receiving of new information, analysis of verbal and non-verbal behaviors, feedback, stimulus films, modeling, and reinforcement (Jakubowski-Specter, 1973).

Assertive Behavior is that type of interpersonal behavior in which a person stands up for his or her legitimate rights in such a way that the rights of others are not violated (Jakubowski-Specter, 1973).

Non-Assertive Behavior is the failure to express one's own rights thereby permitting others to infringe on personal rights (Jakubowski-Specter, 1973).

Aggressive Behavior is that type of interpersonal behavior in which a person stands up for his or her rights in such a way that the rights of others are violated (Jakubowski-Specter, 1973).

Covert Behavior Rehearsal is the use of imagery in which one imagines a specific scene with a specific outcome (Kazdin, 1974).

Overt Behavior Rehearsal is role-playing in which desired behaviors are practiced until the desired proficiency is attained (McFall & Lillesand, 1971).

Externals are defined as those individuals who expect factors over which they have no control to influence significant events in their lives (Rotter, 1966).

Internals are defined as those individuals who believe that their abilities and efforts influence significant events in their lives (Rotter, 1966).

Leader denotes the professional person in charge of assertion training for each experimental group.

Group Members are defined as persons who attended at least four of the training sessions.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Locus of Control

Within recent years increasing emphasis has been placed on the dimension described as internal-external expectancy. This refers to the relative degree to which an individual experiences control in relation to significant life events (Rotter, 1966). This description is offered by Lefcourt (1966, p. 207):

Internal control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events as being a consequence of one's own actions and thereby under personal control; external control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events as being unrelated to one's own personal control.

According to social learning theory, internal-external expectancy is a learned response to environmental stimuli and is based on a perceived relationship between behavior and rewards. Dollard and Miller (1950) have stated that a reinforcement acts to strengthen an expectancy that a particular behavior or event will be followed by reinforcement in the future. Expectancies are said to generalize from a specific situation to a series of situations which are perceived as related or similar. This generalized attitude or expectancy called locus of control influenced a variety of behavioral choices. One important choice is in the relationship of success or failure to locus of control. Lowe and Medway (1976) reported that since externals were more likely to see success in

terms of luck, that they would not be as likely to engage in activities that required effort or ability. According to Battle and Rotter (1963), externals raised their expectancies after failure and lowered them after success more often than did internals. This seems to suggest that externals are more often swayed by external events and ideas than are internals. According to Shavit and Rabinowitz (1978), internals exhibit more effective coping with failure than do externals. Internals also improved their performance following failure feedback relatively more than after success. Internals viewed failure as a result of lack of effort and therefore exerted more effort the next time. Externals viewed failure as a result of lack of ability which produced more anxiety.

Another area of relationship with locus of control is anxiety. Externals are more socially anxious than internals (Lowe, Gormanous, & Kersey; 1978). Feather (1967) found that anxiety seems to increase as externality also increases.

Appelbaum, Tuma and Johnson (1975) reported a relationship between locus of control and assertiveness. Hersch and Scheibe (1967) also found that internals described themselves as more assertive than did externals, although there seems to be varying opinions in the literature (Rimm, Hill, Brown, & Stuart, 1974; Snyder, 1973).

Research findings on the relationship of internal-external control to achievement are not consistent either. McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953) have suggested that people who are high on the need for achievement, in all probability, have some belief in their own

ability to determine the outcome of their efforts. Midgley and Abrams (1974) investigated the relationship between internal-external control and achievement in women. Their findings revealed a positive correlation between motive to avoid success and externality. They concluded that: "High external scorers felt more victimized by circumstances and less able to act positively on their environment. They also seemed less autonomous and less likely to penetrate the social barriers that serve to obstruct successful feminine achievement (p. 737)." Other studies have reported that internals scored higher on achievement tests than did externals (Chance, 1965; McGhee & Crandall, 1968; Lao, 1970).

An additional dimension, differences in self-esteem and internality-externality, was investigated by Janis and Field (1959) and Fish and Karbenick (1971). Findings suggested that all persons with high self-esteem tend to be internally oriented.

One study (Hjelle & Clouser, 1970) deals with the broad area of attitude change. In this study, externals changed their attitudes on several subjects after hearing an authority's opinion on that subject while internals did not change their attitudes. Attitudinal variables are not fixed entities. If a generalized belief in internal-external control is acquired through the socialization process and a variety of learning experiences, then an obvious question arises as to whether or not internal-external beliefs can be modified and under what conditions. The following investigations are supportive of changed orientation but not under certain learning situations.

Nowicki and Barnes (1973) effected a significant change from external to internal expectancy through a structured camp experience in which the connection between behavior and resultant rewards was made clear. The camp experience covered a two-week period and the population consisted of seventh, eighth, and ninth graders.

Using a different approach and a six-week summer program, Majumder, Greever, Holt, and Friedland (1973) changed locus of control for disadvantaged students through a special procedure of student counseling and achievement motivation training.

MacDonald (1971) has reviewed a number of studies related to adults which suggest that remedial programs can control orientations toward greater internality. In summarizing his findings, he says: "Some of the evidence presented here suggests that expectancy levels can be raised. Attempts to raise expectancy levels would seem to be a worthwhile endeavor for both the researcher and the practitioner (p. 115)."

Stickland (1978) reviewed locus of control as it relates to health related behaviors. She concluded that individuals tend to become more internal through the course of therapy. This is supported by several studies which show that relaxation training leads to increased internality (Cox, Freundlich & Meyer, 1975; Ryan, 1976). Another important point that she makes is that internals seem to be resistant to therapy interventions that they perceive as limiting their freedom or control, while therapeutic benefits for externals in the some interventions seem to increase. Externals respond more easily to conditions in which structure is imposed from the outside.

Internals prefer situations in which they can assume responsibility and work independently.

In a successful attempt to modify locus of control in emotionally disturbed boys Morris (1977) found that at a four-month follow-up there was no significant difference. This may suggest that externals are likely to revert to previous beliefs since they are more likely to be swayed by an opinion from an authority (Hjelle & Clouser, 1970). This also suggests a need to do more follow-up studies on the effectiveness of services provided.

There have also been many unsuccessful attempts to modify locus of control. One such attempt that will be mentioned here involved autogenic biofeedback and autogenic training in an effort to move the participants toward internality (Babcock, 1977). A trend was reported but there was no significance noted. The other unsuccessful attempts will be reviewed under assertion training.

In summary, it would seem that locus of control has a significant impact on a number of dimensions including self-esteem, achievement, anxiety, attitude change, success-failure, and assertiveness (though with limited support). Recent studies offer considerable evidence for the possibility of changing orientation in the direction of greater internality under some conditions but there is no consistency noted.

### Self-Acceptance

Behavior therapy research has generally demonstrated that behavior can be changed; however, generalization from the modified

behavior to aspects of the client's cognitive structure has received little research attention. Rogers and Dymond (1954) have stated that it is pointless to change an individual's behavior if he still feels unhappy, worthless, and upset.

Alberti and Emmons (1970) have suggested that a relationship exists between being assertive (expressing personal rights and feelings, both positive and negative, in a socially acceptable fashion) and being self-accepting. They theorized that the assertive individual is more likely to have success in social situations, and consequently is more likely to feel good about himself/herself. Rogers (1961) has stated that the person who accepts himself will, for that very reason, have better interpersonal relations with others. He also observed that as a person becomes more accepting of self during therapy he tends to also become more accepting of others. Berger (1952) has also suggested that there is a relationship between being accepting of others and being self-accepting.

Lazarus (1971) stated that behavior change may be transitory unless persons acquire increased self-esteem along with increased interpersonal and behavioral skills. He concluded that if long-term therapeutic benefits are to be achieved in behavior modification, it is necessary for the therapist to facilitate changes in negative self-concept.

In conjunction with the dimensions suggested by Lazarus, Percell, Berwick, and Beigel (1974) investigated the effect of assertion training on both attitudes and behavior. The first study found that assertive individuals are more self-accepting than nonassertive



individuals. The second study assessed the effect of behavior therapy (assertion training) on the modification of the self-concept. Findings supported the hypothesis that as subjects increased in assertiveness they would also become more self-accepting.

Other studies are also supportive of attitudinal changes through the use of behavioral procedures. For example, Ryan and Ginzynski (1971) reported that subjects exposed to a variety of socio-behavioral techniques experienced important changes in their feelings toward self and others. Oziel and Berwick (1974) found that persons low in self-acceptance were able to make considerable gains through the use of self-reinforcement and facilitating feedback. Additionally, Ryan, Krall, and Hodges (1976) reported positive changes in the self-concept through the use of systematic desensitization (in this case desensitization to test anxiety). They theorized that positive changes may result from the person seeing himself/herself as more effective in coping with problem situations. Tait (1977) also found that people gained self-acceptance through a course in assertiveness training. These research findings present considerable evidence that behavioral procedures can lead to positive changes in both cognitive and affective spheres, including self-acceptance.

### Assertion Training

Assertive training originally developed as a treatment for individuals with passive or inhibited life styles (Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966; Wolpe, 1969). In terms of the principle of reciprocal inhibition, Wolpe (1958) hypothesized that assertive responses are

physiologically incompatible with anxiety. Therefore, when assertive behavior is implemented, interpersonal anxiety is diminished.

Assertive behavior, as described by Jakubowski-Specter (1973) is:

That type of interpersonal behavior in which a person stands up for her legitimate rights in such a way that the rights of others are not violated. Assertive behavior is an honest, direct, and appropriate expression of one's feelings, beliefs, and opinions. It communicates respect for the other person, although not necessarily for that person's behavior (p. 2).

Alberti and Emmons (1970) see assertion as a way "to overcome personal powerlessness," that is, to help the person who feels somehow insignificant or frustrated in the total scheme of things to assume more control over his own destiny.

Basically, assertive training as defined by Jakubowski-Specter (1973) has three goals: (1) to educate the person to his interpersonal rights; (2) to overcome whatever blocks exist to acting assertively; and (3) to develop and refine assertive behaviors through active practice methods. The component skills to be acquired fall under the broad categories of nonverbal and verbal behaviors. A number of approaches can be used to implement assertive skills. However, the most common techniques consist of modeling, covert rehearsal, and role rehearsal.

The rationale for the use of modeling has been well presented by Bandura (1971), who drew this conclusion after a lengthy review of modeling principles, research findings, and treatment procedures:

When inability to function effectively is due mainly to faulty or deficient behavior, modeling is not only

the most appropriate, but often an essential means of developing requisite skills and interpersonal competencies. With the provision of exemplary models, individuals are able to acquire through observation complex behaviors in large segments or in their entirety without having to undergo laborious trial-and-error process (p. 703).

Krumboltz and Schroeder (1965) and Krumboltz and Thoresen (1964) have demonstrated the power of modeling combined with social reinforcement in producing behavior change, while Friedman (1971) found that modeling followed by directed role-playing of the same behavior increased assertive behavior in college students. Rathus (1973) investigated the effect of modeling in a series of videotapes in which peers of college women demonstrated assertive behavior. Significant increases in assertive behavior were reported. Eisler, Hersen, and Miller (1975), working with psychiatric patients in a clinical setting, found the use of modeling with instructions to be an effective modality for increasing assertive skills. In a study using college students as subjects, Young, Rimm, and Kennedy (1973) reported modeling of assertive responses by the therapist to be effective in producing significant change.

According to McFall and Lillesand (1971), the general aim of role rehearsal is to provide each person with direct training in precisely those performance skills lacking in the response repertoire. In effect, role-rehearsal permits the person to simulate problem situations and practice new modes of responding without concern for the immediate, real life consequences of the experimental behavior.

Cautela (1971) has proposed that modeling effects be obtained covertly by having the person imagine the modeling situation, that is, the individual imagines a model who engages in those behaviors he wishes to develop. Wolpe (1969) maintains that covert procedures are less threatening as well as more flexible and economic. However, studies by McFall and Lillesand (1971) found both covert and overt rehearsal to be effective. Generally a combination of modeling, imagery, and role-rehearsal has been used.

McFall and Marston (1970) compared the outcomes of two variations of behavior research--with and without response feedback. Both behavioral rehearsal treatments were effective in achieving significant gains in assertiveness. Behavioral rehearsal with response feedback promoted the greatest improvement.

Kazdin (1974) investigated the effects of covert modeling with or without social reinforcement and the effects of no modeling on the acquisition of assertive skills. The modeling reinforcement group showed greater assertiveness at post-treatment and follow-up. However, participation in any of the two modeling procedures led to improvements in self-perceived assertive ability. The effects of covert modeling were maintained up to a three-month follow-up assessment.

Many studies have investigated the possible changes in locus of control as a result of assertion training. Pearre (1977) studied the effects of assertive training on college students' perceptions of locus of control. She found that there was no significant change

in perceived locus of control and that sex did not influence any characteristic measured as a result of assertive training. This was also supported by Eichenbaum (1977).

Ryan (1976) used four ninety minute sessions of assertive training in attempting to modify locus of control in highly external women. Although anxiety was significantly reduced and assertive behavior increased, the change effect in locus of control was not significant.

Tait (1977) found similar results in studying personality dimensions of women. Significant change was effected on the dimensions of self-acceptance and assertive skills but not on locus of control. These results were supported by Percell (1974) who also found a significant decrease in anxiety resulting from assertive training. O'Leary (1977) investigated the same dimensions but found no significant change in either self-acceptance or locus of control. Other studies (Hansen, 1978; Williams, 1977; Donahue, 1978; Eichenbaum, 1978) also found no significant change in locus of control as a result of assertive training.

Some studies, however, have achieved significant changes in locus of control at posttest but these results were not maintained at follow-up. One study (Jackson, 1977) investigating long term effects of Personal Causation Training (assertion training) on locus of control found that subjects returned to near the pretest level in locus of control so that no significant change was noted over time. Gulanick (1977) also investigated the influence of time on locus of

control after assertive training ended. Her results indicated that after a two month period there was no significant change in locus of control.

Heimberg, Montgomery, Madsen, and Heimberg (1977), in a review of the literature, decided that the use of modeling, coaching, and feedback were the most effective methods to teach assertiveness. They also concluded that self-acceptance and assertiveness were characteristics most influenced by assertive training. Another conclusion reached was that the Rathus Assertive Scale is the best researched and best measure of self-reported assertive skills.

While assertive training may be carried out on a one-to-one basis, groups offer several advantages. In addition to the obvious economy of being able to extend the range of the therapist's services, there is the stimulation of group encouragement and group support. Flowers and Guerra (1974) found that individuals who had the opportunity to serve as a "coach" learned assertive techniques better than those who did not get this practice as a part of their training.

The research is inconsistent regarding the long-term effects of assertive training. Galassi, Kosta, and Galassi (1975) did a one-year follow-up report on the effectiveness of group assertiveness training with nonassertive college students. Their findings are supportive of lower levels of anxiety and a continuation of high levels of assertiveness. This is in contrast to an earlier study by Hedquist and Weinhold (1970) where no long-term gains were found.

The structure of assertion training sessions also seems to be a relevant issue in terms of success for the participants. Schwartz

and Higgins (1979) reported that as a result of an automated assertion training group internals were likely to drop out due to "lack of control." Also, internals failed to improve in assertiveness skills. Externals, however, exhibit more anxiety than do internals in unstructured situations and prefer structured treatment (Golden, 1975; Morley & Watkins, 1974). This suggests that for best results for a mixed group of both internals and externals a semi-structured assertion training group might be given. Assertive training utilizing any of these types of training would most likely create anxiety for one or another of the groups. Therefore, the present study was designed to utilize a semi-structured training mode involving lectures and homework assignments (structure) plus an opportunity to spontaneously role-play situations, to "coach" others, to report assertive behaviors from the past week, and to reach solutions to personal problems by discussing possible assertive responses (unstructured).

### Summary and Hypotheses

Several important conclusions can be reached from this review of the literature. There have been very few studies in which a follow-up evaluation was completed so that long-term effectiveness of assertion training is not established. Also, internals are less likely to benefit from a structured intervention than are externals. Only one study showed that internals and externals reacted differently to a certain type of assertion training (automated). Based on other research dealing with the structure of treatment it would seem that,

under unstructured assertion training, internals would benefit most. No studies have been done on the effects of locus of control upon the acquisition and maintenance of skills during and after a semi-structured assertion training group. Locus of control has been correlated with numerous personality dimensions and has been changed as a result of therapy toward internality. The overwhelming evidence, however, is that locus of control is not significantly changed during assertion training. Therefore these hypotheses have been proposed:

1. That semi-structured assertion training will be equally beneficial to both internals and externals, and they will change significantly in assertiveness with neither group benefitting more.
2. That semi-structured assertion training will be equally beneficial to both internals and externals, and they will change significantly in self-acceptance with neither group benefitting more.
3. That internals will maintain or gain assertive skills during the two months following the end of assertion training.
4. That internals will maintain or gain self-acceptance during the two months following the end of assertion training.
5. That externals will decrease in assertive skills during the two months following the end of assertion training.
6. That externals will decrease in self-acceptance during the two months following the end of assertion training.
7. That internals will be significantly more self-accepting and assertive before the assertiveness training begins.



### CHAPTER III

#### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of locus of control on the acquisition of assertive skills and on the personality dimension of self-acceptance as a result of semi-structured assertion training. The discussion of the methods and procedures used will cover the sample population, sampling procedures, design, instrumentation, and analysis.

##### Sample Population

The sample was composed of forty-nine Cache Valley residents, twelve of whom were male and thirty-seven of whom were female. All of the subjects had some college education. The ages of the subjects ranged from eighteen to forty-five.

##### Sampling Procedure

Recruitment consisted of placing advertisements in the local newspaper and the newspaper of Utah State University. Recruitment also consisted of talking to six classes on the campus of Utah State University. Also contacted was the Office of Occupational Training Program (OOTP), which has regular assertion training groups as part of its training. Two groups from this organization were used.

In all, seventy-nine people were recruited. Six could not meet at any of the times scheduled and were not included. Eighteen members of the OOTP were divided into two groups of nine subjects each. The

remaining fifty-five were divided into five groups depending upon the time that each individual could meet. The size of these groups ranged from fourteen to seven per group. Twelve of these people did not show up at all. Nine more dropped after the initial session. The five groups then consisted of four, five, eight, eight, and nine subjects each. Of these thirty-four, plus the eighteen members of OOTP, only three dropped during the course of the intervention. Seven people did not send back the follow-up evaluation. This left forty-two subjects from which to draw the twelve most internal and the twelve most external scores. The external group had scores eleven and above on Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale while the internal group had scores seven and below.

### Design

All seven groups experienced the same procedure. They were administered the Berger Self-Acceptance Scale, the Rathus Assertiveness Scale, and Rotter's I-E Scale as pretests. They then went through six two-hour sessions of semi-structured assertion training based on the Lange and Jakubowski model (1976) spread over a six-week period. The three scales were administered at the end of the treatment as posttests. For follow-up evaluation, each subject was sent a letter containing the three scales and a self-addressed stamped envelope with a request for them to complete the scales and return them as soon as possible. The letters were mailed after a two-month period. After three more weeks, as many subjects as possible were contacted

by phone. Five subjects had moved and could not be reached. Those who were reached were asked to return the scales if they had not done so. All the letters that were returned came in within two weeks after the phone calls ended.

#### Data Acquisition and Instrumentation

Rotter's Internal-External Scale is a 26-item scale developed to measure locus of control. Numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the validity and reliability of this scale and various correlates of internal-external control (Rotter, 1966; Lefcourt, 1966; Joe, 1971). Reliability coefficients have been consistent and have ranged from .48 to .84 (Joe, 1971). Internal consistency estimates of reliability have ranged from .65 to .79, with nearly all correlations in the .70's (Rotter, 1966).

Rotter (1966) found the mean for the scale to be 8.29 for Ohio State University college students. On the basis of this mean score, for the purpose of the present study, those who scored seven or less were termed internals and those who scored eleven or greater were referred to as externals. This provides a four point difference between groups and therefore less similarity between the individual members of the two groups of this study.

The Rathus Assertiveness Scale (RAS) is a 30-item self-report measure which is presented by the author as a measure of assertiveness or social boldness. Information regarding the validity and reliability of this instrument is presented in the original article

describing the scale (Rathus, 1973). The test-retest reliability coefficient is .77. Validity in terms of the impressions respondents make on other people was between .33 and .62 ( $p's \leq .01$ ). The data show that the self-reporting RAS permits reliable and valid assessment of assertiveness or social boldness.

The Berger Self-Acceptance Scale is a 36-item self-report inventory designed to measure self-acceptance (Berger, 1952). The Spearman-Brown whole test reliability coefficient between the Berger and judge's ratings was .897, establishing validity for the instrument.

The Lange and Jakubowski model of semi-structured assertion training is based on the idea that behavioral assertion practice during the sessions and outside the sessions is the best method of increasing assertive skills. This model suggests that people do not know how to be assertive rather than that people are afraid to be assertive. Most sessions involve role playing situations in which assertiveness is not the usual response. Everyone is allowed to bring in examples and problems that they need to work on. The participants learn to recognize fears and manipulations, and they learn the differences between being assertive, aggressive, and passive.

### Analysis

From all the initial subjects, only 24 were used for the analysis. The 12 who scored lowest on the I-E Scale constituted the internal group and the 12 who scored highest on the I-E Scale were

referred to as the external group. The data collected from the other subjects were not used for this analysis.

Two-way analysis of variance with repeated measures were computed to determine if any changes occurred in self-acceptance and assertiveness. Each ANOVA tested for differences in the dependent variables between internals and externals. The other main effects tested for were any changes in the dependent variables over time. The interaction effect between groups over time was also tested for.

## CHAPTER IV

## RESULTS

The analysis of the data is presented in this chapter. An analysis of the data is presented for each hypothesis tested. Two-way analysis of variance with repeated measures was the statistical procedure in determining significant differences and interaction effects.

Hypothesis 1

Semi-structured assertion training will be equally beneficial to both internals and externals, and both groups will change significantly in assertiveness with neither group benefitting more.

The means and standard deviations for the Rathus Assertiveness Scale are shown in Table 1. This table presents the means and the standard deviations for each group (I-E) at each testing time (pre, post, follow-up). The overall mean for the external group is 7.44 while the overall mean for the internal group is .83. The scores for each testing time are collapsed over groups and are presented at the bottom of the table. The pretest mean was -13.21, the posttest mean was 11.34 while the follow-up mean was 14.34. It can be seen from Table 1 that externals moved from a mean score of -6.17 at pretest to 15.75 at follow-up. Internals also moved toward being more assertive from a pretest score of -20.25 to a follow-up score of 12.92. These data are analyzed to determine any main effects in assertiveness.

Table 1  
Means and Standard Deviations for the  
Rathus Assertiveness Scale

	Pre		Post		Follow-up		Overall Mean
	Mean	sd	Mean	sd	Mean	sd	
Externals	-6.17	20.61	12.75	17.44	15.75	25.26	7.44
Internals	-20.25	25.69	9.83	25.52	12.92	23.78	.83
<hr/>							
Mean	-13.21		11.34		14.34		

From inspection of Table 2 it can be seen that the obtained F value for the main effect of time of 31.53 was large enough to be significant at the .001 level. Therefore, assertiveness was shown to be a benefit gained from assertion training for both internals and externals; consequently hypothesis 1 was accepted.

The obtained F value for between groups was not significant. This means that there was no difference in assertiveness between groups. The obtained F value for the interaction between I-E and Assertiveness over Time was also not significant. This means that locus of control did not differentially effect the acquisition or maintenance of assertive skills.

Table 2  
Two-way Analysis of Variance with Repeated Measures  
for Assertiveness

Source	df	SS	MS	F
A bet ind	23	28952.61	1258.81	
bet groups (I-E)	(1)	786.72	786.72	.614
error A	(22)	28165.89	1280.27	
B within ind	48	19082.0	397.54	
pre--fup (Time)	(2)	10944.36	5472.18	31.53*
interaction	(2)	502.53	251.27	1.45
(I-E & Assertive- ness over Time				
error B	(44)	7635.11	173.53	
Total	71	48034.61		

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\*p  $\leq$  .001

### Hypothesis 2

Internals and externals will change significantly in self-acceptance with neither group benefitting more.

The means and standard deviations for the Berger Self-Acceptance Scale are shown in Table 3. This table presents the means and the standard deviations for each group (I-E) and at each testing time (pre, post, follow-up). The overall mean for each group is presented with the external group attaining a mean of 83.39 and the internal group attaining a mean of 78.36. The collapsed mean for each testing time is also presented. The pretest mean was 92.72, the posttest



Table 3  
Means and Standard Deviations for the Berger  
Self-Acceptance Scale

	Pre		Post		Follow-up		Overall
	Mean	sd	Mean	sd	Mean	sd	
Externals	95.92	18.23	73.17	21.35	81.08	20.07	83.39
Internals	89.42	30.60	74.17	28.14	71.5	28.88	78.36
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>							
Mean	92.72		73.67		76.29		

mean was 73.67, while the follow-up mean was 76.29. These data are analyzed to determine any main effects in assertiveness.

From inspection of Table 4 it can be seen that the obtained F value for the main effect of time of 31.64 was large enough to be significant at the .001 level. Therefore, self-acceptance was shown to be a benefit gained from assertion training in both groups and hypothesis 2 was accepted.

The obtained F value for between groups was not significant. This means that there was no difference in self-acceptance between groups. The obtained F for the interaction between locus of control and self-acceptance over time was also not significant. This means that locus of control did not differentially effect the acquisition or maintenance of self-acceptance. However, there is a trend noted for externals to decrease in self-acceptance toward pretest levels.

Table 4  
Two-way Analysis of Variance with Repeated Measures  
for Self-Acceptance

Source	df	SS	MS	F
A bet ind	23	46507.54	2022.07	
bet groups (I-E)	(1)	455.01	455.01	.217
error A	(22)	46052.53	2093.30	
B within ind	48	8981.34	187.11	
pre to f-up (Time)	(2)	5088.25	2544.13	31.64*
interaction	(2)	355.53	177.77	2.21
(I-E & Self- acceptance over Time)				
error B(A)	(44)	3537.56	80.40	
Total	71	55488.88		

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\*  $p \leq .001$

### Hypothesis 3

Internals will maintain or gain assertive skills during the two months following the end of assertion training.

From inspection of Table 1 it can be seen that the mean score for assertiveness for the internal group is higher at follow-up than at posttest. This means that internals continued to gain assertive skills after assertion training ended. However, this was not tested since there was no interest in whether or not significance occurred between posttest and follow-up. The raw scores are enough to indicate maintenance of assertive skills. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was accepted.

#### Hypothesis 4

Internals will maintain or gain self-acceptance during the two months following the end of assertion training.

From inspection of Table 3 it can be seen that the mean score for the internal group is lower at follow-up than at posttest. This means that internals continued to become more self-accepting after assertion training ended. (Lower values indicate more self-acceptance.) This was also not tested for the same reason given for hypothesis 3. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was accepted.

#### Hypothesis 5

Externals will decrease in assertive skills during the two months following the end of assertion training.

From inspection of Table 1 it can be seen that the mean score for the external group is higher at follow-up than at posttest. This means that externals continued to increase in assertive skills and a test for significance was not necessary since the raw scores obviously contradict the hypothesis. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was not accepted.

#### Hypothesis 6

Externals will decrease in self-acceptance during the two months following the end of assertion training.

From inspection of Table 3 it can be seen that the mean score for the external group is higher at follow-up than at posttest. This difference was not significant at the .05 level as indicated in Table 4 by the F value for the interaction effect. Therefore, hypothesis 6 was not accepted.

Hypothesis 7

Internals will be significantly more self-accepting and assertive before assertion training begins.

From inspection of Tables 2 and 4 it can be seen that there were no significant differences between groups. Therefore, hypothesis 7 was not accepted.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

This chapter consists of three parts. The first part concentrates on a discussion of the statistical results and explanations for results that were not expected. The second section will consist of the recommendations for further research and the final section will contain the limitations of the present study.

#### Discussion

The statistical results indicate several things. Most of the results were predicted and are consistent with previous research. Other results were not expected and are in contrast with the findings of previous literature.

In the present study, a trend toward internality was observed. This trend can be seen in Table 5. This is consistent with previous research (Donahue, 1978; Eichenbaum, 1978; Hansen, 1978; O'Leary, 1977; Tait, 1977; Williams, 1977). This trend as a result of assertion training raises an important question: What is the component that results in changes in locus of control and also results in increased assertiveness? The results indicate that an increase in assertiveness may result in an increase in the dimension of locus of control. By definition both internal locus of control and assertiveness represent an active response to life. Both require action in certain situations. However, assertiveness only requires action in interpersonal situations

while internality requires action in all life situations since the individual believes that he is responsible for all reinforcers in his environment which therefore cannot be left to luck, chance, fate, or a powerful other being.

Table 5  
Means and Standard Deviations for the Internal-External  
Locus of Control Scale

	Pre		Post		Follow-up		Overall
	Mean	sd	Mean	sd	Mean	sd	
Externals	13.08	3.0	10.08	4.92	10.25	4.97	11.13
Internals	5.0	2.45	3.75	2.77	4.0	2.7	4.19
-----							
Mean	9.04		6.92		7.13		-

There have been several studies attempting to identify the various factors involved in locus of control. Mirels (1970) identified two variables accounting for 19.5% of the variance. One is an inclination to assign importance to ability and hard work or to luck in personally relevant outcomes. The second factor is the acceptance or rejection of the idea that a citizen can exert some control over political and world affairs. Viney (1974) replicated the findings of Mirels (1970) and identified the factors as personal and social

responsibility. Collins (1974) identified four factors, two being internal factors, one being an external factor and the other being split. These four factors are a belief in a difficult world, a just world, a predictable world, and a politically responsive world.

Assertiveness appears to be a part of the personal responsibility factor identified by Viney (1974). Fitting into Collins' factors, assertiveness appears to be a part of the just world factor. Neither of these factors is limited to the interpersonal nature of assertiveness. It seems that more factor analysis needs to be done in order to accurately identify the interpersonal component of locus of control which appears to be effected by assertiveness training.

One predicted result was the change in assertiveness as measured by the Rathus Assertive Scale. The significant change in both the internal and the external groups from pre- to posttest was expected. This indicates that assertion training is effective in producing the desired results. The results also indicate that semi-structured assertion training based on the Lange and Jakubowski model (1976) is effective and can provide the end results that are expected from assertion training.

Not only is assertion training effective but the participants maintain and even increase their perceived assertiveness over the two months following the end of assertion training. This provides added support for using assertion training since the positive results were maintained for at least two months. This agrees with Galassi et al. (1975) who found that positive results were maintained

for at least a year. The follow-up for the present study indicated that participants continued to increase in assertiveness for two months although there was no significant change from posttest to follow-up.

This finding was expected for internals but not for externals. Externals, due to their world view, do not see environmental reinforcers as resulting from their own actions. It seemed logical to conclude that the reinforcer (getting what is wanted as a result of being assertive) would not be perceived to be a result of the individual's action. It was assumed that externals would view the result as coming from chance or luck and would conclude that their assertive actions are worthless. The result would be less assertiveness on their part. A study by Newman (1977) contends that internals are more likely to engage in risk-taking behavior when the feedback level is high. A situation requiring assertive skills would fit into this category since feedback would be immediately observable. This suggests that internals would engage in assertive behaviors more often. The findings of the present study do not agree with these contentions. One explanation for the contradiction is that externals seem to be swayed in their opinions more than are internals (Hjelle & Clouser, 1970) and may then be more likely to respond in a socially appropriate manner on the dimension of assertiveness since increased assertiveness is what is expected as a result of assertion training.

Another predicted result is the change in self-acceptance as measured by the Berger Self-Acceptance Scale. The significant change in both internals and externals from pre- to posttest was also



predicted. These findings support the results obtained by Percell et al. (1974) and Tait (1977). This indicates that self-acceptance is positively influenced by assertion training and that a significant change in self-acceptance can be expected as a result of assertion training. Ryan et al. (1976) have contended that positive changes in the self-concept may be related to the acquisition of more effective coping behaviors. The results provide tentative support for this position and for Lazarus' (1971) theory that behavioral procedures can be used to facilitate changes in negative self-concepts.

Although self-acceptance increased over the course of training for both internals and externals, the externals decreased in self-acceptance while the internals continued to increase during the two month follow-up period. This was expected although the interaction was not significant. This trend in the scores obtained by externals is interesting to note and may be worth investigating over a longer period of time. This interaction was expected based on the literature. A study by Morris (1977) suggests that externals revert to their original beliefs following intervention procedures. It was thus expected that externals would decrease in self-acceptance after assertion training ceased. The results of this study indicate that externals have a tendency to revert to more familiar thoughts about themselves. Hjelle and Clouser (1970) found that externals changed their attitudes on several subjects after hearing an authority's opinion on that subject while internals did not change their attitudes. Based on this

finding, it was expected that externals would change in self-acceptance more than internals and then would revert back to old beliefs once the authority or leader was no longer constantly around. Over a longer period of time externals may decrease to a level of no significance from pretest. Another important question that this trend raises is directed toward the theory proposed by Lazurus (1971). He proposed that behavioral procedures can be used to facilitate changes in negative self-concepts. The changes which occurred in self-acceptance may only be maintained in internals.

It is interesting to speculate as to why there was a trend for externals to revert in self-acceptance but not in assertiveness. Self-acceptance is a personality variable while assertiveness is a behavioral variable. One explanation may be that since behavioral variables are reported in terms of behaviors and thus more objectively reported, they can not be subject to mood swings and subjective reporting like personality variables are. Another explanation is that personality variables are more stable and would revert back from their temporary position. Thus, unless other interventions are made, the behavior, strong because it has recently been externally reinforced would eventually follow the personality reversion. A long range replication of the present study would be required to demonstrate the actual situation. It was expected that assertiveness would follow a pattern similar to self-acceptance. These results question the extent of the theory proposed by Ryan, et al. (1976) which is mentioned previously. It appears that there is a relationship between

effective coping behaviors and self-acceptance but that self-acceptance can decrease without a negative effect upon assertiveness.

A result which was not predicted and which is in contrast to the literature is that, at pretest, externals described themselves as more assertive than did internals. This adds more confusion as to whether externals or internals are more assertive. Hersch and Scheibe (1967) found that internals describe themselves as more assertive than do externals. Rimm et al. (1974) found no difference between internals and externals. Neither study used subjects from assertion training groups and their sample sizes were much larger than the present study. People who believe they are unassertive would be more likely to volunteer for assertion training than are assertive individuals who would believe that they do not need to be more assertive. Internals may also be more likely to recognize the extent of their unassertiveness than are externals and thus give themselves lower assertive scores.

An area for discussion is the structure of the assertion training and the possibility that it differentially effects internals and externals. Previous research indicates that externals are more comfortable in a highly structured setting and that internals are more comfortable in an unstructured setting (Golden, 1975; Morley & Watkins, 1974). Schwartz and Higgins (1979) also reported that internals dropped out of a highly structured setting. The twelve subjects who dropped out of the present study were distributed across internals (n=3), others (n=5), and externals (n=4) equally.

From this study it does not appear that semi-structured assertion training is more or less acceptable to either internals or externals. Both groups gained equally during assertion training and it appears that neither group considered the training more or less beneficial than did the other group.

One conclusion that can be drawn from the results of this study is that self-acceptance and assertiveness are changed by assertion training. While assertiveness maintains after a two-month period, it appears that self-acceptance decreases for externals. The trend for externals may indicate that locus of control differentially effects the maintenance of self-acceptance with externals losing self-acceptance while internals increase in self-acceptance.

However, locus of control does not differentially effect the acquisition of assertiveness as a result of semi-structured training. One study (Schwartz & Higgins, 1979) suggests that locus of control effects the acquisition of skills as a result of automated assertion training. All of this may indicate that unstructured assertion training would be best for internals while automated assertion training would be best for externals and that semi-structured assertion training would be equally beneficial for both groups.

### Recommendations

Based on the results obtained and the conclusions made, the following recommendations for further research are made:

1. A study examining the long range changes in self-acceptance as a result of a study similar to the present one.

2. The structure of assertion training (automated, semi-structured, and unstructured) and its differential effects on internals and externals in the acquisition of personality and behavioral changes.

3. The long range effects of behavior therapy techniques, such as assertion training, upon self-acceptance and other personality variables.

4. The component of locus of control and the specific items on the I-E Scale which are effected by assertion training.

5. The comparison of changes in personality variables to changes in behavior in externals.

#### Limitations

This study was limited to Cache Valley residents between the ages of 18 and 45. All were white and slightly more than half were college educated or were presently enrolled in college. Generalization to other populations should be made with caution.

Additionally, a specific semi-structured procedure was followed for all the groups over a six-week time period. The results may not generalize to other procedures and other time periods.

This research utilized one male leader for five groups and one female leader for two groups. The findings, therefore may not be applicable to groups in which co-leaders are used.

Instrumentation for this study was limited to self-report rather than direct measures of behavior. Therefore, this research is

limited to the extent that subjects answered in socially desirable directions to test measures.

All subjects for this study were volunteers. Therefore, this research may not be applicable to non-volunteer subjects. The results are limited to the extent that volunteer subjects react differently than non-volunteer subjects.

The design of this study limits the interpretation of the results. There was no control group so this is not a true experimental design. Therefore, changes may be attributable to any number of factors.

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## APPENDICES

## Appendix A

Rotter's Locus of Control

Answer the numbered items by circling either a or b. In some cases both may apply to you or neither may be correct. However, choose one or the other for each item.

1. a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.  
b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
2. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.  
b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
3. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.  
b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
4. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.  
b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
5. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.  
b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
6. a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.  
b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their happenings.
7. a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.  
b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
8. a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.  
b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like.
9. a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.  
b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
10. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.  
b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.

## Appendix B

Berger Self-Acceptance Scale

This is a study of some of your attitudes. Of course, there is no right answer for any statement. The best answer is what you feel is true of yourself.

You are to respond to each question according to the following scheme:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all true of myself	Slightly true of myself	About half-way true of myself	Mostly true of myself	True of myself

Remember, the best answer is the one which applies to you.

1. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems. \_\_\_\_\_
2. I don't question my worth as a person, even if I think others do. \_\_\_\_\_
3. When people say nice things about me, I find it difficult to believe they really mean it. I think maybe they're kidding me or just aren't being sincere. \_\_\_\_\_
4. If there is any criticism or anyone says anything about me, I just can't take it. \_\_\_\_\_
5. I don't say much about social affairs because I'm afraid that people will criticize me or laugh if I was the wrong thing. \_\_\_\_\_
6. I realize that I'm not living very effectively, but I just don't believe I've got it in me to use my energies in better ways. \_\_\_\_\_
7. I look on most of the feelings and impulses I have toward people as being quite natural and acceptable. \_\_\_\_\_
8. Something inside me just won't let me be satisfied with any job I've done -- if it turns out well, I get a very smug feeling that this is beneath me, I shouldn't be satisfied with this, this isn't a fair test. \_\_\_\_\_
9. I feel different from other people. I'd like to have the feeling of security that comes from knowing I'm not too different from others. \_\_\_\_\_



10. I'm afraid for people that I like to find out what I'm really like, for fear they'd be disappointed in me. \_\_\_\_\_
11. I am frequently bothered by feelings of inferiority. \_\_\_\_\_
12. Because of other people, I haven't been able to achieve as much as I should have. \_\_\_\_\_
13. I am quite shy and self-conscious in social situations. \_\_\_\_\_
14. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else. \_\_\_\_\_
15. I seem to have real inner strength in handling things. I'm on a pretty solid foundation and it makes me pretty sure of myself. \_\_\_\_\_
16. I feel self-conscious when I'm with people who have a superior position to mine in business or at school. \_\_\_\_\_
17. I think I'm neurotic or something. \_\_\_\_\_
18. Very often, I don't try to be friendly with people because I think they won't like me. \_\_\_\_\_
19. I feel that I'm a person of worth, on an equal plane with others. \_\_\_\_\_
20. I can't avoid feeling guilty about the way I feel toward certain people in my life. \_\_\_\_\_
21. I'm not afraid of meeting new people. I feel that I'm a worthwhile person and there is no reason why they should dislike me. \_\_\_\_\_
22. I sort of only half-believe in myself. \_\_\_\_\_
23. I'm very sensitive. People say things and I have a tendency to think they're criticizing me or insulting me in some way and later when I think of it, they may not have meant anything like that at all. \_\_\_\_\_
24. I think I have certain abilities and other people say so too. I wonder if I'm not giving them an importance beyond what they deserve. \_\_\_\_\_
25. I feel confident that I can do something about the problems that may arise in the future. \_\_\_\_\_

26. I guess I put on a show to impress people. I know I'm not the person I pretend to be. \_\_\_\_\_
27. I do not worry or condemn myself if other people pass judgment against me. \_\_\_\_\_
28. I don't feel very normal, but I want to feel normal. \_\_\_\_\_
29. When I'm in a group, I usually don't say much for fear of saying the wrong thing. \_\_\_\_\_
30. I have a tendency to sidestep my problems. \_\_\_\_\_
31. Even when people do think well of me, I feel sort of guilty because I know I must be fooling them -- that if I were really to be myself, they wouldn't think well of me. \_\_\_\_\_
32. I feel that I'm on the same level as other people and that helps to establish good relations with them. \_\_\_\_\_
33. I feel that people are apt to react differently to me than they would normally react to other people. \_\_\_\_\_
34. I live too much by other people's standards. \_\_\_\_\_
35. When I have to address a group, I get self-conscious and have difficulty saying things well. \_\_\_\_\_
36. If I didn't always have such hard luck, I'd accomplish much more than I have. \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix C

Rathus Assertiveness Schedule

Directions: Indicate how characteristic or descriptive each of the following statements is of you by using the code given below.

- +3 very characteristic of me, extremely descriptive
- +2 rather characteristic of me, quite descriptive
- +1 somewhat characteristic of me, slightly descriptive
- 1 somewhat uncharacteristic of me, slightly nondescriptive
- 2 rather uncharacteristic of me, quite nondescriptive
- 3 very uncharacteristic of me, extremely nondescriptive

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Most people seem to be more aggressive and assertive than I am.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. I have hesitated to make or accept dates because of "shyness."
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. When the food served at a restaurant is not done to my satisfaction, I complain about it to the waiter or waitress.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. I am careful to avoid hurting other people's feelings, even when I feel that I have been injured.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. If a salesman has gone to considerable trouble to show me merchandise which is not quite suitable, I have a difficult time saying "No."
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. When I am asked to do something, I insist upon knowing why.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. There are times when I look for a good, vigorous argument.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. I strive to get ahead as well as most people in my position.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. I enjoy starting conversations with new acquaintances and strangers.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. To be honest, people often take advantage of me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. I often don't know what to say to attractive people of the opposite sex.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. I will hesitate to make phone calls to business establishments and institutions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. I would rather apply for a job or for admission to a college by writing letters than by going through with personal interviews.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. I find it embarrassing to return merchandise.